Who wrote this scientific text?

Cyril Labbé, Dominique Labbé

Cyril Labbé
Laboratoire d'Informatique de Grenoble - Université Joseph Fourier
cyril.labbe@imag.fr
http://membres-lig.imag.fr/labbe/

Dominique Labbé
Laboratoire PACTE (CNRS - Institut d'Etudes Politiques de Grenoble)
dominique.labbe@iep.grenoble.fr
http://www.pacte-grenoble.fr/blog/membres/labbe-dominique/

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Abstract
The IEEE bibliographic database contains a number of proven duplications with indication of the original paper(s) copied. This corpus is used to test a method for the detection of hidden intertextuality (commonly named "plagiarism"). The intertextual distance, combined with the sliding window and with various classification techniques, identifies these duplications with a very low risk of error. These experiments also show that several factors blur the identity of the scientific author, including variable group authorship and the high levels of intertextuality accepted, and sometimes desired, in scientific papers on the same topic.

Résumé
La base bibliotraphique de l'IEEE contient un certain nombre de duplications avérées avec l'indication des papiers originaux copies. Ce corpus est utilize pour tester une méthode de detection de l'intertextualité cachée (vulgairement : plagiat). La distance intertextuelle, combinée avec une fenêtre glissante at avec diverses techniques de classification, identifie ces duplications avec un très faible risque d'erreur. Ces expériences montre également que plusieurs facteurs brouillent l'identité de l'auteur scientifique, notamment les groupes de signataires à géométrie variable et des niveaux importants d'intertextualité acceptée, voire recherchée, dans les papiers sur le même sujet.

SIGMA Laboratoire d'informatique de Grenoble.
220 route de la Chimie - F 38400 Saint Martin d'Hères.

1. Introduction

Questioning the authorship of a scientific paper may seem paradoxical for two reasons.

Firstly, the main rule of a scientific communication is impersonality. This is obtained by erasing traces that usually mark the presence of the author, especially the personal pronouns - primarily the "I" and "you "- and most personal characteristics, rhetorical figures, *etc*..

Secondly, contemporary scientific texts dealing with the same subject area not only use the same terminology and the same concepts but they must also quote the main previous works on the topic. In many papers, there is a "related work" section, which reviews the existing literature, giving excerpts or summaries of the most noticable research. This phenomenon is commonly called "intertextuality" that is to say *the presence of a text in another one*. Intertextuality is one of the basis of scientific communications but must fairly respect a number of precise rules (using quotation marks, or other equivalents, naming the authors of the document quoted and giving complete references).

Therefore, it seems *a priori* difficult to find the author of a scientific text with the techniques used for non-scientific texts (Love 2002; Koppel & Al 2009; Stamatatos 2011, Savoy 2012, Savoy 2013). As an example, (Savoy 2013) explores the use of Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) for authotship attribution. Plagiarism detection in the scientific literature has also to deal with this very special asserted intertextuality of scientific texts. A wide range of methods and commercial tools are available for plagiarism detection so that for example the PAN[1] campaign is now focusing on effeciancy and limiting the queries to search engine. For this reason, classical detection methods are as follows. Some of them rely on the use of detecting repeted chars or word n-grams, which retrival and storage seem to be efficient thanks to hashing functions (as an example: Sorokina & Al. 2006). Others methods often select some words-considered as being the most discriminative (most frequent words or specific words).

In a first section of this paper it will be shown that the identification of scientific writters is possible by placing the question of authorship within a more general framework: the classification of a large population, here a large number of texts (Labbé & Labbé 2011, Labbé 2007). In fact, the works by one or several identical writers share a greater proportion of words than would texts written by different authors. The second section demonstrates that this property makes it possible to identify cases of hidden intertextuality, which is obviously an important issue for the development of scientific research as mentionned in conclusion.

2. An authorship attribution experiment

The texts used for these authorship attribution experiment~~s~~ are scientific papers, on computing and electronics, from the IEEE bibliographic database. The IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers) is - alongside the ACM (Association for Computing Machinery) - the leading association for the computing sciences. Its subscription based bibliographic database is the largest in the field of computing, electronic and related sciences (more than 3 million references in spring 2011 according to the IEEE).

The first experiment focuses on 259 texts comprising the corpus "O" - for "original" – the

[1] PAN: This is the evaluation lab on uncovering plagiarism, authorship, and social software misuse and is held as part of the CLEF conference. See also the Plagiarism Detection System Tests (http://plagiat.htw-berlin.de/software-en/test2013/).

main features of which are described in the Table 1 below[2].

Table 1. Main characteristics of the corpus O (259 texts)

Year of publication	oldest	newest	median	mode
	1997	2011	2005	2007
Length (words-tokens)	shortest	longest	average	95%
	1,207	75,670	5,476	1,712- 12,068

In addition, these publications share one characteristic: their authorship is not disputed. The selection has not been made with the conventional methods of a random sampling. However, as discussed below, the selection was made by a large number of people acting as "independent operators". Empirical verification will show that the results are similar to a random selection.

Processing

Pdf files are converted into text using the "pdftotxt" program (free unix version 3.01 for Windows). This is the "weak phase" of the procedure because some texts are poorly recognized and improvements are needed. During the operation, figures, graphs, formulae and numbers disappear. However, titles and legends are preserved. The bibliographies are removed for reasons discussed elsewhere (Labbé & Labbé 2012a).

In a first step, we tested a variant of this automatic conversion: preservation of numbers and mathematical symbols; elimination of headers and footers, laboratories and addresses of authors, *etc*. The aim was to observe the potential distortions introduced by a complete automatic processing, the only one to be used on very large populations of texts.

The texts are then segmented into word tokens following the procedure implemented in the "Oxford Concordance Program" (Hockey & Martin, 1998) - the most widely used for English texts. Then word types are listed in alphabetical order and their occurrences are counted (number of times they appear in the text). Finally, the distances between all possible pairs of texts are measured.

Intertextual Distance

The method was described in Labbé & Labbé, 2011 (see also: Labbé & Labbé 2003, 2006)[3]. It consists in superimposing two texts (A and B) and counting the number of different words types. Given:

• N_A and N_B the number of word-tokens respectively in A and B, i.e. the length of the two texts;

• V_A and V_B: the number of word-types, respectively in A and B, i.e. the vocabulary of these two texts;

[2] Reference lists can be found in Annex of Labbé & Labbé 2013 (online documentation).
[3] For a comparison between inter-textual distance and other similarity index, see the Appendix 2 in Labbé & Labbé 2012a.

• F_{iA} and F_{iB}: the number of occurrences (absolute frequency) of a vocable in A and B respectively;

In the case of two texts of the same length ($N_A = N_B$):

| F_{iA} - F_{iB} |: the absolute difference (without sign) between the number of a word-type in A and B; $D_{(A,B)}$: the intertextual distance between A and B is the sum of the absolute differences between the absolute frequencies of all the word-types of A and B ($V_{(A,B)}$):

$$D_{(A,B)} = \sum_{i \in (A,B)}^{V_{(A,B)}} \left| F_{iA} - F_{iB} \right| \quad with\ N_A = N_B \quad (1)$$

The index of the distance (or relative distance):

$$D_{rel(A,B)} = \frac{\sum_{i \in (A,B)}^{V_{(A,B)}} \left| F_{iA} - F_{iB} \right|}{N_A + N_B} \qquad (2)$$

In the case of two texts of unequal lengths ($N_A < N_B$), their distance is estimated by "reducing" the length of B to the one of A:

• $U = \frac{N_A}{N_B}$ is the coefficient used to reduce B to B' ($N_{B'} > N_A$).
• $E_{iA(u)} = F_{iB}. U$ is the theoretical number of occurrences in B'of a type i ($i \in B$).

In formula (1) above, the number of occurences of each type in B is replaced by its theoretical number in B':

$$D_{(A,B')} = \sum_{i \in (A,B)}^{V_{(A,B)}} \left| F_{iA} - E_{iA(u)} \right|$$

Formula (2) becomes:

$$D_{rel(A,B')} = \frac{\sum_{i \in (A,B)}^{V_{(A,B)}} \left| F_{iA} - E_{iA(u)} \right|}{N_A + N_{B'}} \qquad (3)$$

Formula (3) can be defined as the estimated number of different tokens that would count A and B if B had the same length as A.

This index has the three properties expected of a distance (in a plane space): identity, symmetry, triangular inequality. It varies uniformly between 0 - the same vocabulary is used in both texts with the same frequencies - and 1 (no word in common). An index of 0.5 means that the two texts share 50% of the words, that is to say half of their contents.

Validity limits of the intertextual distance

Many experiments have empirically determined that the quality of the results obtained with the help of Formula (3) depends on three conditions:

- 1. Texts should be long enough (at least 1,000 words), otherwise the index is unstable and its values are always very high. In the corpus O, one text contains less than 1,000 words and was therefore taken out of the experiment.
- 2. For short texts (less than 3,000 words), the index is sometimes unstable and values may be higher. The shorter the texts are, the heavier is this drawback. In the corpus O, 58 texts - representing 22.5% of the total - have a length less than 3,000 words, 10% have a length less than 2,250 words. The results obtained on the texts of the lower deciles will therefore be examined separately;
- 3. The lengths of the compared texts should not be too different. In all cases, for English texts, the ratio between the smallest length and largest one must be less than 1/7 (D. Labbé 2007). Table 1 shows that 95% of the lengths are between 1,712 and 12,068 words (that respects the ratio of 1: 7). 7 texts (2.5%) have shorter lengths, between 1,207 and 1,712 words, and 7 texts are longer than 13,000 words. The five longest are of a size somewhat unusual. Therefore, the calculation will be valid for 95% of the texts and the remaining 5% will be considered by another way.

Factors determining the distance

These experiments also showed that, under the restrictions above, the index is mainly influenced by four factors. In decreasing order of importance: *genre, author, theme and period*. The genre - that is to say the means of communication - is always the most significant factor because it obeys a variety of special rules in addition to those of language. The second factor in importance is the author(s). In other words, two contemporary texts – written in the same genre - are always separated by a smaller distance when they are by the same author rather than by different writers, and this is the case regardless of the theme.

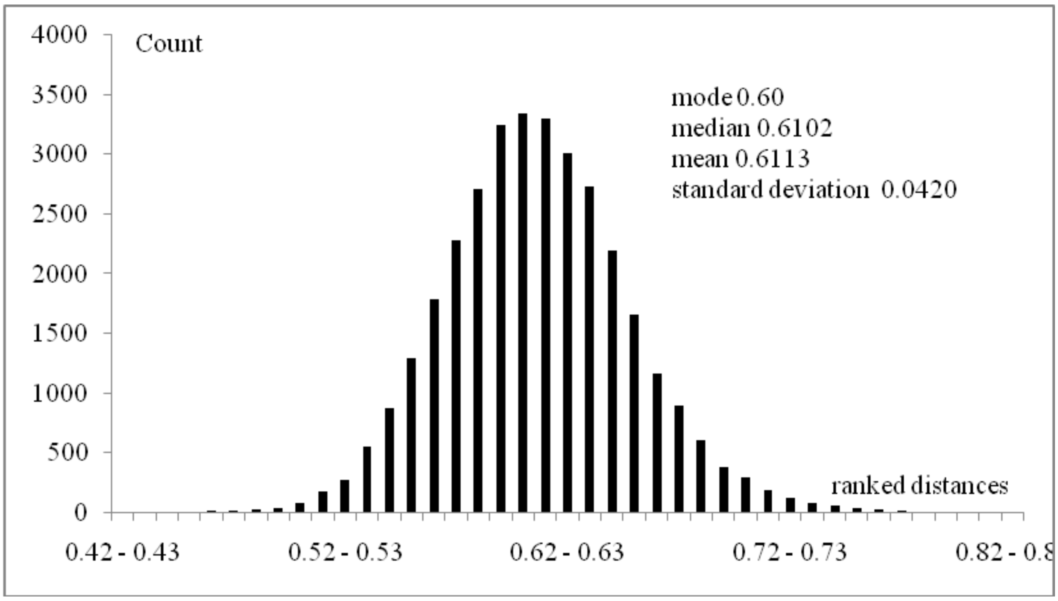
For the corpus O, two of these four factors are fixed. First, the texts belong to the same genre (scientific literature on computers and electronics). Second, they are all contemporaries (first row of Table 1). Apart from a dozen texts published in the late 1990s, they are published in the early 2000th.

Two factors remain: author and theme. In non-scientific texts, the author variable overrides the theme. Is it the same in the scientific literature?

The O corpus makes it possible to answer empirically this question: is the distance between the texts by same authors systematically shorter than that between two texts by different authors, even when the subject of these texts is the same? The corpus O actually contains several texts by the same authors. This seems unlikely with this size of population (256 individuals randomly selected out of more than 3 millions)... Yet the corpus O contains twenty cases of this kind, most of the authors with two texts but a group of scientists have three papers and another one, five. In total this gives 32 possible pairs of texts by the same authors.

Firstly, the intertextual distances between these 256 texts is calculated (i.e. 33,411 different pairs) and these distances are ranked in ascending order, in equal interval classes of 0.01 (Fig. 2, below).

Figure 2. Histogram of distances in the corpus O in ascending order (class interval: 0.01)



The bell shape of the graph and the confusion of the three central values indicate a Gaussian distribution as observed with random samples, which means that the corpus O has the characteristics of such samplings. In addition, the dispersion around the mean is quite small: it is measured by the standard deviation (σ) and the coefficient of relative variation: two thirds of the values are distributed around the mean ($\bar{x}$ ± 6.9%). This low dispersion indicates a relatively homogeneous population.

Abnormal values

A distribution of this kind necessarily involves some "abnormal" values (otherwise it would not be "random"). According to an accepted error threshold (α), one can define some confidence intervals (Table 3 below).

Table 3. Limits of the confidence interval depending on the value of α

	Lower limit	Upper Limit
α = 5%	0.5290	0.6935
α = 1%	0.5039	0.7187
α = 0.3%	0.4854	0.7372

For example, in the context of a Gaussian distribution it is expected that 99.7% of the population would be in the range $\bar{x}$ ± 3σ. In other words, in this case, there should be 50 distances (0.15% of total) below the average reduced distance of three standard deviations (0.485). In fact, there are 53, which confirms the Gaussian distribution of these distances[4].

According to the model presented above, it is expected that the smallest distances would be observed between pairs of texts by the same authors - including texts on different themes – and not between those by different writers even when they are on the same subject, *etc*.

The lower distance (0.159) joins O0054 and O0055[5] which are in fact almost the same text by the same authors at two different stages. It was first published in some conference proceedings and then re-published in a journal. As well, the second and third couples concern the same authors for 2x2 papers - on the same topic - presented the same year in two different conferences with a high proportion of common text (distance 0.230 for the pair in second position and 0.245 for the third position)[6]. The fourth distance (0.296) joins two papers by the same authors who presented their work in a short version (4,953 words) and a long version (14,107 words).

However, the hypothesis of the author(s) as a leading factor does not seem completely proved. In fact, there are 32 possible pairs with the same authors. One would expect that the first 32 lines of the table would be occupied by these 32 couples. This is the case until line 17.

Couples on the 18th and 22nd ranks concern a text (O0260) the length of which (11,916 words) exceeds the upper limit of the ratio (1:7) mentioned above. However, this is not the case for the couples on row 20 and 24 and following, that cover the same topics but are signed by different authors. Examination of these apparent "failures" highlights two peculiar characteristics of the scientific publications: the fluctuating identity of the (collective) authors and an intertextuality which is assumed and even sought.

The fluctuating identity of the scientific author(s)

Most scientific papers are signed by several authors and this collaboration often varies according to circumstances. In the corpus O, these changes involve more than a dozen pairs of texts. For example, between O0221 and O0222, one author is added (footnote 5). Let us consider the first group of authors which has five texts (Stephen DJ McArthur and others) on the same subject or relatively close ones. 10 pairs of abnormally low distances are expected and, in any case, these ten intra-cluster distances would be lower than those between each of

[4] These 53 couples "abnormally" close are shown in the table in Appendix in Labbé & Labbé 2013).

[5] O0054: Thomas Weng, Yi Zhu & Chung-Kuan Cheng. Digital Design and Programmable Logic Boards: Do Students Actually Learn More? *38th ASEE/IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference*, October 22–25, 2008, Saratoga Springs, NY. O0055: Yi Zhu, Thomas Weng & Chung-Kuan Cheng. Enhancing Learning Effectiveness in Digital Design Courses Through the Use of Programmable Logic Boards. *IEEE Transactions on Education*. Vol 52, N° 1, February 2009.

[6] O0014: M. Solanki, A. Cau & H. Zedan. Augmenting Semantic Web Service Description with Compositional Specifications. *Proceedings of the International World Wide Web Conference*, May 2004, pp. 544 - 552. O0016: M. Solanki, A. Cau & H. Zedan Introducing Compositionality in Web Service Descriptions. *Proceedings of the 10th IEEE International Workshop on Future Trends of Distributed Computing Systems* (FTDCS'04) 2004, pp 14-20. O0221: Hilario Gómez-Moreno, Saturnino Maldonado-Bascón & Francisco López-Ferreras. Edge Detection in Noisy Images Using the Support Vector Machines. *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*. Vol. 2084, pp. 685-692, 2001. O0222: H. Gómez Moreno, S. Maldonado Bascón, F. López Ferreras, P. Gil Jiménez. A New and Improved Edge Detector Using the Support Vector Machines. *Advances in Systems Engineering, Signal Processing and Communications*, 2002, pp. 239-243.

these five texts and certainly lower than any of the 251 other texts constituting the corpus (even when the text is on the same subject). Table 4 below shows the results which highlight the fluctuating identity of the scientific author.

Table 4. The “intra-cluster distances” between the five texts by S. D. J. McArthur & Al (O0018, O0034, O0035, O00124; O0161: plain text) and “inter-distances” between one of these five with others (in bold).

Rank	Text A	Text B	Distance (A,B)
9	O0034	O0035	0.3368
12	O0018	O0035	0.3535
20	O0018	O0034	0.4077
25	O0124	O0161	0.4272
28	O0018	O0124	0.4351
30	O0018	O0161	0.4397
34	O0034	O0124	0.4602
38	O0035	O0124	0.4629
51	**O0023**	**O0035**	**0.4800**
59	**O0023**	**O0034**	**0.4868**
68	O0034	O0161	0.4900
94	**O0096**	**O0124**	**0.4985**
140	O0035	O0161	0.5046

* For authors and titles see Appendices 1 and 2 in Labbé & Labbé 2013.

Eight of the ten couples are separated by distances less than the lower limit of the confidence interval (with $\alpha = 1\%$). However, two "intra" distances (rank 94 and 140) are above this threshold and even above many couples of texts which are signed by different authors. The basic explanation is this: the authors of this group of 5 texts are not exactly the same:

- O0034 and O0035 were published in 2007, signed by S. D. J. McArthur, E. M. Davidson, V. M. Catterson, A. L. Dimeas, N. D. Hatziargyriou, F. Ponci & T. Funabashi;
- O00161 was published in 2004, signed by V. M. Catterson & S. D. J. McArthur (both from the University of Glasgow);
- O0018 was published in 2005 signed by Victoria M. Catterson, Euan M. Davidson & Stephen D. J. McArthur (the three from the same university);
- O00124 was publisched in 2004, signed by Stephen D. J. McArthur, Scott M. Strachan & Gordon Jahn (the three from the same university).

In other words, central to these five papers there is the work of only one research team – led by S. D. J. McArthur & V. M. Catterson - but this team sees its members changing over time. Finally, two of these papers are the result of international collaboration between this team and four researchers from three other different teams (Greece, USA and Japan). If these authors have actually contributed to writing the papers, it is normal that these texts are separated by a greater distance than if they had been written strictly by the same authors.

The group of authors with three texts in the corpus O presents the same characteristics:

- O0028 was signed by S. Khan, K. F. Li, E. G. Manning, Md. M. Akbar.
- O0080: Md Mostofa Akbar, Eric G. Manning, C. Gholamali Shoja & Shahadat Khan.

- O0081: Md Mostofa Akbar, M. Sohel Rahman, M. Kaykobad, EG Manning & CG Shoja.

Only Md. M. Akbar and E. G. Manning have signed the three papers. Between O028 and O081 - which are also the most distant (D = .434) - five authors are different out of a total of seven.

From the 20th rank of the table, every couple of significant texts have similar specifications: the same authors are listed in a different order, some of them disappear or re-appear from one paper to the next ... This highlights a problem that had not existed, at least up until now, in other genres, particularly in literature – and which complicates the recognition of the author(s) of a scientific paper.

These abnormally low distances also highlight another feature of the scientific literature mentionned in our introduction: the high degree of intertextuality which is tolerated, assumed, and even encouraged.

A considerable assumed intertextuality

The differences in the variable "author" are therefore sufficient to explain the relatively high distances between papers by changing groups of partners working on the same theme (although the topics and angles of approach may vary). But, *a priori*, this unstable identity attached to collective authorship cannot explain the abnormally short distances observed between a small number of papers - signed by different authors - on the same subject. In Table 4, the first couple in this case (O0023[7] & O0035[8]) are separated by a distance (0.480) even slightly less than the most stringent threshold (α = 0.3%), that is to say, extremely unlikely at least within the assumptions of the model of authorship attribution presented above. When reading these two texts, it appears that the last one published (O0023) is a "review article", which covers exactly the same subject as the other, using the same terminology, the same reasoning, the same notations and leading to very similar conclusions.

In the scientific literature, this type of article - synthesis or "survey paper" - is common. The publishers willingly accept them because they do not cause problems and their evaluation is easy, at least easier than for an innovative paper. The authors who are mentioned in these survey papers tolerate them - even if they are more or less distinguished... - provided they are cited. Is it necessary to mention again, in this regard, that the productivity of a researcher is not measured in terms of publications but by adding up of the number of times this researcher's publications have been cited and by calculating indicators, such as h-index, which are not necessarily related to productivity.

The corpus O provides several examples of this fairly standardized intertextuality which is tolerated, even encouraged, in some subject areas. The paper O0259[9] provides the most noticeable cases with 10 pairs of texts that are too close (Table 5). Six couples, identified in this text, are remarkably close (with α = 0.3%).

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[7] M. Pipattanasomporn, H. Feroze & S. Rahman. Multi-agent Systems in a Distributed Smart Grid: Design and Implementation. *Proceedings of the IEEE/PES Power Systems Conference and Exposition*, 2009, pp.1-8.

[8] S. D. J. McArthur, E. M. Davidson, V. M. Catterson, A. L. Dimeas, N. D. Hatziargyriou, F. Ponci & T. Funabashi. Multi-Agent Systems for Power Engineering Applications-Part II: Technologies, Standards, and Tools for Building Multi-agent Systems. *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems*, Vol. 22 , No.4 , November 2007, pp. 1753-1759.

[9] Marianne A.Azer, Sherif M. El-Kassas, Magdy S. El-Soudani. A Full Image of the Wormhole Attacks. Towards Introducing Complex Wormhole Attacks in Wireless Ad Hoc Networks. *International Journal of Computer Science and Information Sec*urity, Special Issue, May 2009.

Table 5. Significant low distances with the review article O0259 (text A) published in 2009 (α <1%)

Range of the couple A,B	Text B	Distance (A,B)	Year of publication of B	Length of B (tokens)
22	O0260	0.4218	2006	11,916
29	O0024	0.4356	2003	6,627
32	O0110	0.4491	2005	4,460
33	O0233	0.4598	2000	4,886
40	O0102	0.4690	2004	3,121
50	O0264	0.4797	2003	6,927
76	O0144	0.4938	2004	5,148
95	O0115	0.4986	2005	3,334
120	O0078	0.5026	2004	7,740
127	O0169	0.5035	2005	3,654

--- 0.3% threshold

This case raises the following remarks:

- this synthesis paper is long (7,116 words). In addition, the couple at range 22 is beyond the limit (for the maximum length defined above). This length factor could also affect the couples of lines 29, 50, 120...

- Given the fact that the review article (text A) was published in 2009, the years of publication of papers (B) clearly indicate the direction of the influences. All these papers deal with the same theme at different dates. They provide for O0259 much of the "raw material", including terminology and symbolism, not including references, which, let us remember, are not included in the calculation.

This example helps to understand that an unusual closeness between texts comes from a large degree of intertextuality. But, in these cases, this intertextuality does not exceed the limit of what is implicitly tolerated - even encouraged - in the area of scientific publishing, especially within a mature research field.

Let summarize. Firstly, in the O corpus there are 32 pairs of texts, each of the two having - at least partially – the same author(s). The mean "intra authorship" distance is 0.365. Secondly, 25 pairs of texts are abnormally close despite being written by different authors. For the latter, the mean "inter authorship" distance is 0.4595 that is to say 26% higher than the mean "intra". It is to be particularly noted that only 0.075% of the distances between texts by different authors are less than 0.49. In other words, using this threshold, one has less than 1 chance out of 1,000 to assert incorrectly that two texts separated by a distance less than 0.49 are by the same author.

As a conclusion to this first part, the fact that the author is the leading factor cannot be dismissed. However, this factor is partly counteracted by other characteristics specific to scientific publications. Therefore, it is not possible to reason in a dichotomous manner. It is only in the case of very small distances that one can conclude with certainty that the two texts are by the same author(s). In addition, there is a grey area where several hypotheses are considered and validated by examination of the texts. A very likely hypothesis is that the authors are wholly or partly similar. Another unlikely but possible hypothesis must be considered: a review article (B) shares a high proportion of text with a text (A), A being published before B. There is no problem if the principles of scientific publication are adhered to in B. Such is clearly not the case when this intertextuality is hidden.

3. Hidden Intertextuality

The O corpus consists of original documents (hence "O") that share one characteristic: all were reported by the IEEE as having been "duplicated in violation of the principles of scientific publication" by other authors (these duplicate papers are identified by the letter D. The full list is presented in Labbé & Labbé 2013).

Duplication without reference and permission.

In the bibliographic base of the IEEE, there were - in spring 2012 - more than 300 texts preceded by a caveat like the one reproduced in the Table 6 below.

Table 6. Example of a Notice of Violation of IEEE Publication Principles.

Notice of Violation of IEEE Publication Principles **“Estimating neutral divergence amongst Mammals for Comparative Genomics with Mammalian Scope”** by Anup Bhatkar and J.L. Rana in the Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Information Technology (ICIT'06) After careful and considered review of the content and authorship of this paper by a duly constituted expert committee, this paper has been found to be in violation of IEEE's Publication Principles. This paper contains significant duplication of original text from the papers cited below. The original text was copied without attribution (including appropriate references to the original author(s) and/or paper titles) and without permission. Due to the nature of this violation, reasonable effort should be made to remove all past references to this paper, and future references should be made to the following articles: **"Distribution and intensity of constraint in mammalian genomic sequence"** by Gregory M. Cooper, Eric A. Stone, George Asimenos, Eric D. Green, Serafim Batzoglou, and Arend Sidow in Genome Research, Jul 2005; 15, pp 901 – 913, Cold Spring Harbor Press. and **"Quantitative Estimates of Sequence Divergence for Comparative Analyses of Mammalian Genomes"** by Gregory M. Cooper, Michael Brudno, Eric D. Green, Serafim Batzoglou, and Arend Sidow in Genome Research, May 2003; 13, pp 813 – 820, Cold Spring Harbor Press

The terms used by the IEEE give an accurate definition of the phenomenon: a copy of one or more texts, without indicating the references of the original and without the permission of the authors of this original. We propose to call this phenomenon "hidden intertextuality".

This raises two questions:
Firstly, at which point can one talk of duplication? In the IEEE notice the adjective "significant" is problematic: from what proportion of the copied text can one use the term "duplication"? In fact, this assessment was left to the expert committees to which the IEEE has submitted the cases brought to its attention. It is even more difficult because, as noted above, intertextuality is one of the characteristics of scientific literature. The question is more aptly formulated as “can the cases identified by the IEEE establish a form of judicial precedents?”

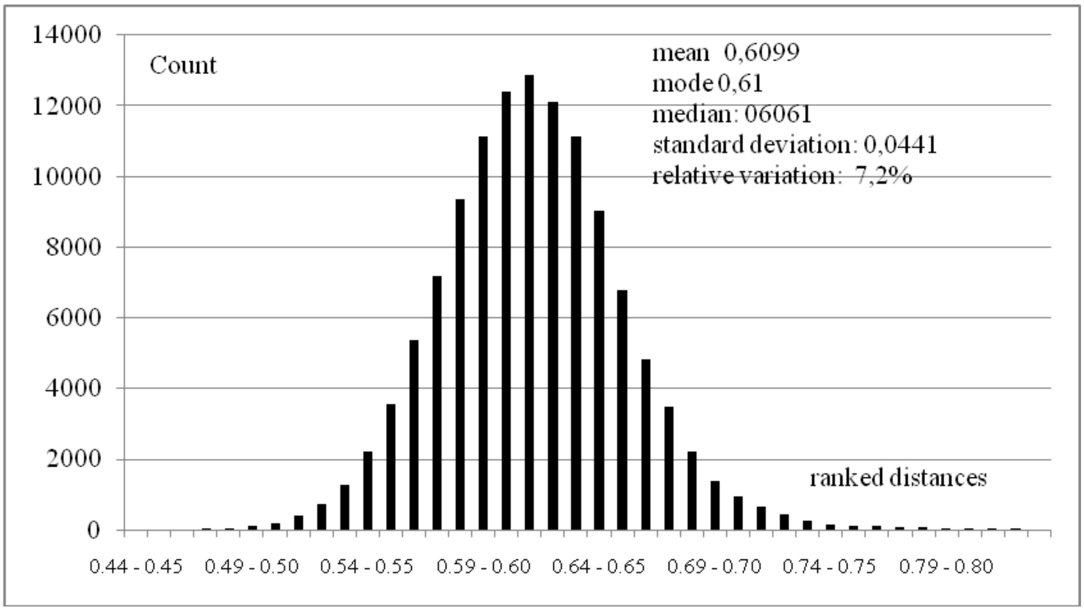
Secondly, can the computer help to detect these "duplications without references and permission" in other words, this hidden intertextuality? This idea is not new (see Bouville's synthesis in 2008 and Biagiolli 2012) and many detection methods have been proposed (overview in: Meuschke & Gipp 2013; Alzahrani & Al 2011). To our knowledge, the method presented in our paper is original.

Detection of similarities between originals and duplications

To answer these two questions, we created a corpus D with the texts preceded by a notice - like the one in Table 6 – drawn out of the IEEE bibliographic database. There are more than 300, but only 236 can be used. For the others: some pdf files were impossible to process in OCR, some originals were not available or could not be read, *etc*. These 236 duplications have been added to the 256 originals from which they were, in whole or part, copied (according to IEEE).

The same procedures as above were applied to these texts: converting pdf to txt, segmentation into tokens, indexing and computing distances between 478 texts whose length is at least 1000 words. Fig. 7 below shows the results of this operation and can be compared to Fig. 2.

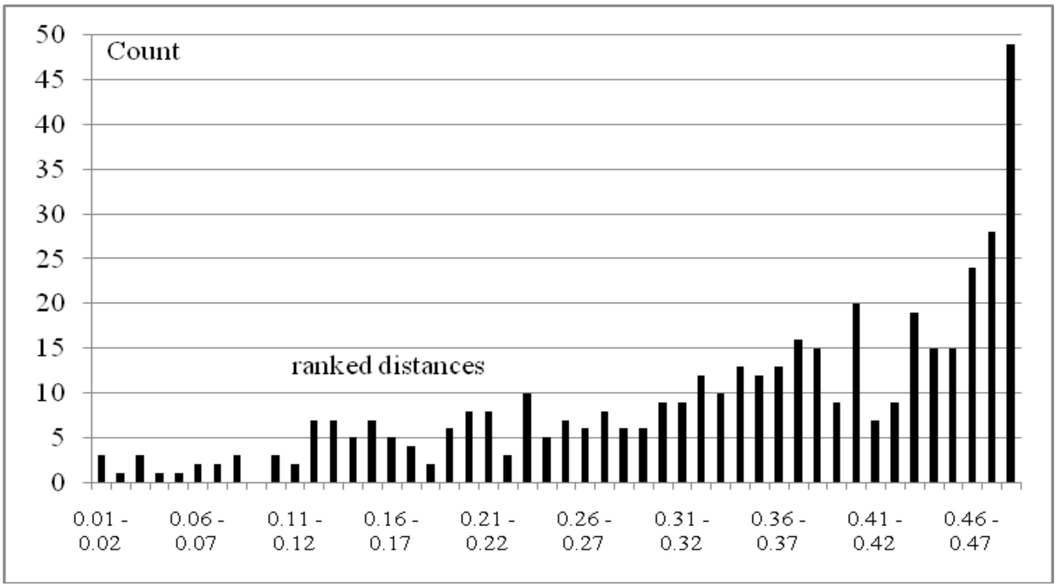
Figure 7. Histogram of distances in the corpus O-D sorted in ascending order (class interval: 0.01)



It is the same bell curve with similar and mixed central values, and almost the same dispersion parameter. This suggests that the total corpus displays again the characteristics of a random sample: each decision of duplication was independent from all the others and a large number of independent decisions leads to the same results as that of a random selection.

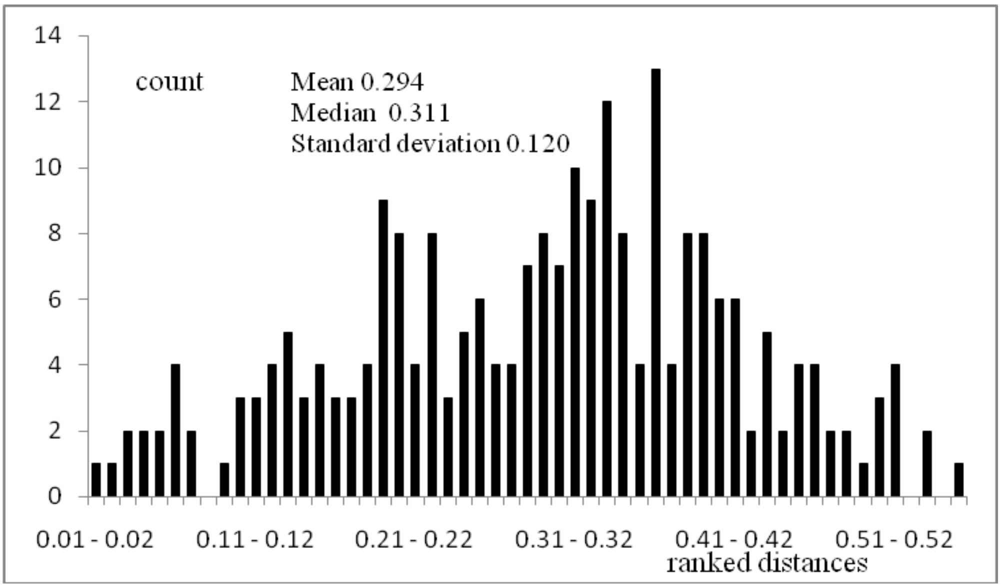
But here a new phenomenon appears: there are too many abnormally short distances. By sticking to the lower bounds of the confidence interval (α = 0.3%), they are three times more than expected in a random selection. Some of these distances are almost null and they form a quite abnormal "tail" of values (histogram in Fig. 8 below).

Figure 8. Histogram of remarkably short distances (α = 0.3‰, class interval: 0.01)



Most of the duplications reported by the IEEE are found within these remarkably short distances. It can be controlled by comparing originals and duplications and retaining only minimal distances between each duplication and its corresponding original(s) (Fig. 9).

Figure 9. Distances between each duplicate and its nearest original (class interval: 0.01)



Compared to graphs (Fig. 2 and 7), the central values indicate distances too low for texts purported to be by different authors. The dispersion around the mean - as shown in the multimodal profile graph - also indicates a highly heterogeneous population.

These graphs show how difficult it is to detect duplications without the help of an automaton. To compare systematically the 492 texts one to another would necessitate 120,786 parallel complete readings. Among them, less than 240 comparisons are positive, *i.e.* less than 2 per thousand. If one considers that these violations are embedded among more than three million texts in the IEEE database, there is less than one chance out of 17 million to find one of these duplications by chance...

To automate the detection of these cases, several classification techniques can be used. The easiest way is to look for the closest neighbors: "nearest neighbors classification" (knn classification, Cover & Hart 1967), setting an acceptance threshold, for example, whereby any distance less than 0.49 are to be considered, which is accepting a risk of error of less than 3‰.

It is necessary to look beyond the first neighbor (k> 1) - even if it seriously complicates the search - because in the corpus D, a large number of duplications do not focus on a single text, but on several, and it is important to find the maximum of those partial duplications by not stopping when the most obvious is detected. Even if one uses 0.49 as a threshold (3 chances out of 1,000 to assert falsely that the two texts have the same authors or that one of the two duplicates the other in an abnormal way) only 7 duplications (out of 256) are eliminated from the survey, i.e. 2.7% of the cases identified by the IEEE. Conversely there are only 0.7‰ false positives (less than one error per thousand cases examined). In this respect, one must accept that the aim is not so much to find all the duplicates but to avoid initial errors of diagnosis ("false positives") that can be made at first glance, by accepting a low risk of missing some cases of actual duplication.

Naturally, the "chain effects" caused by the abnormal proximities between originals are not counted as "false positives", which includes other texts on the same subject by the same authors, or survey papers found in the first section of this communication. For example, according to IEEE, D0014[10] has duplicated the originals 00018 and O0024 (V. M. Catterson, S. D. J. McArthur & Al mentioned above). In fact, O0018 appears as the closest neighbor of D0014, displaying such a distance that the duplication is not in doubt. But as shown in Table 4 above, the authors of O0018 have four other texts in the corpus of originals with O0034 and O0035 being extremely close to O0018. The “notice of violation” does not mention O0034 and O0035, but it is clearly logical that these two texts appear in the second and third neighbors of D0014 (before O0024).

- D0008[11] has duplicated O0024[12] and IEEE gives only this text as the original source. However, this text is one of those reported in the survey paper O0259 – see above: Table 5 - and therefore this survey paper is detected as the second abnormal neighbor of D0008.

As shown in the histogram above (Fig. 9) and given the high standard deviation, it is not a homogeneous population. Three main categories can be distinguished.

[10] Dejia Shi, Li Wang & Jing He. The Design of Multi-agent System in IDAPS Microgrid. *Proceedings of the International Asia Symposium on Intelligent Interaction and Affective Computing*, 2009, p. 63-66.

[11] Baolin Sun, Hua Chen. An Intrusion Detection System for AODV. *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference of Engineering of Complex Computer Systems*, 2005.

[12] Yang Tseng, Poornima Balasubramanyam, Calvin Ko, Rattapon Limprasittiporn, Jeff Rowe & Karl Levitt. A Specification-based Intrusion Detection System for AODVC. *Proceedings of the 2003 ACM Workshop on Security of Ad Hoc andSensor Networks*, Fairfax, VA USA, 31October 2003.

Three categories of duplications

First, the *full copy*: the original text has been duplicated without modification or with a few cosmetic changes, particularly in the title and abstract.

For example, D0173[13] is a complete copy - without modification – of: O0197[14]. The distance of 0.018 is due to some mistakes in the copy and few OCR errors.

Some duplicators do not hesitate to repeat the process several times. For example, D0187[15] and D0198[16] are the same text[17] duplicated and presented by the same "authors" in two different conferences.

Second category: *copying whole passages without significant changes* intercalating some shortcuts and transitions between these original passages, which gives a duplicate text shorter than the original and looks like a "Harlequin fabric."

For example: D0203[18]. This duplicate paper is 2,700 word-tokens long. It comes from: O0232[19].which is 4,906 tokens long. Abridgements and condensations between the copied passages generate a distance of 0.240. In this case, the same duplicators presented exactly the same text (D0219) at the 5th International Conference on Wireless Communications, Networking and Mobile Computing (September 2009).

This "reduplication" seems fairly common. In the corpus there is even a group who has submitted four times practically the same text duplicated in this way.

This sometimes causes strange collisions. For example, O0190[20], published in 2007, is duplicated in the manner of a "Harlequin fabric" by two authors who presented it in February

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13 Tang Shu Pian. Resonant Energy Transfer from Organics to Quantum Dots and Carrier Multiplication. *Proceedings of the 2009 Asia- Pacific Power and Energy Engineering Conference*, March 2009.

14 Vladimir M. Agranovich & Gerard Czajkowski . Resonant Energy Transfer from Organics to Quantum Dots and Carrier Multiplication. Deposited on arXiv in January 2008

15 Xuefeng Cao, Gang Wan & Feng Li. 3D Vector-Raster Data Integration Model Based on View Dependent Quadtree and GPU Friendly Rendering Algorithm. *Proceedings of the International Joint Conference on Computational Sciences and Optimization*, CSO 2009, Vol.2, p.244-247.

16 Xuefeng Cao, Gang Wan, and Feng Li. 3D Real-Time Representation of Sociocultural Features Based on Vector-Raster Data Integration Model. *Proceedings of the International Forum on Information Technology and Applications*, 2009. IFITA '09. Vol.3, p.587-590.

17 Eric Bruneton & Fabrice Neyret. Real-time rendering and editing of vector-based terrains. *Computer Graphics Forum 27*, 2 (2008), p. 311-320.

18 Zheng Jianfeng & Nie Zaiqing. Language Models for Web Object Retrieval. *Proceedings of the International Conference on New Trends in Information and Service Science*, June 2009, p. 282-287.

19 Zaiqing Nie Yunxiao Ma, Shuming Shi, Ji-Rong Wen & Wei-Ying Ma. Web Object Retrieval. *Microsoft Research Technical Report*: MSR-TR-2006-70.

20 S. Karetsos, C. Costopoulos, O. Pyrovolakis & L. Georgiou. Developing Agricultural B2B Processes Using Web Services. *Proceedings of the 6th WSEAS Int. Conf. on Software Engineering, Parallel and Distributed Systems*, February 16-19, 2007, p. 161-168.

2009[21]. This first duplication, in turn, is almost completely duplicated by another group that presents it with exactly the same title in June 2009[22].

It happens quite frequently that a duplication does not copy just the one text but two - see the warning reproduced above - or even more: one of the cases we have examined is a collage of five different texts. These more complex cases may generate important intertextual distances between the originals and their duplicate. This is also the case for the third category.

Third category: the *insertion of passages* more or less rewritten as a paraphrase or a more or less personalised creation. These are the most difficult cases to detect because the distances are generally higher. In three cases, they even exceed the threshold with $\alpha = 1\%$. But in both of these cases, it is possible that the version of the original paper available online is quite different from the one used for duplication.

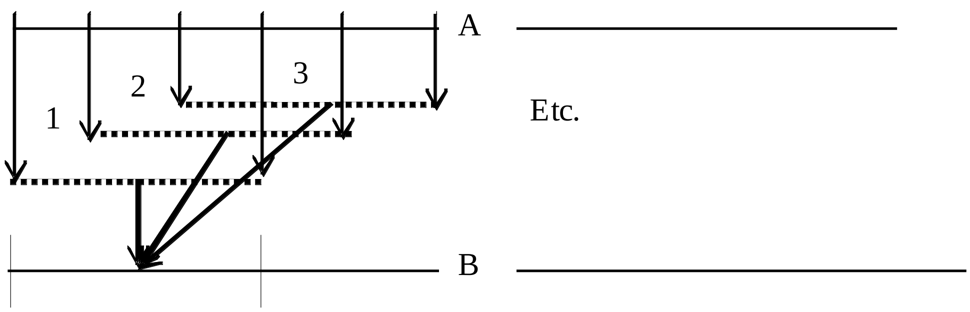
This illustrates the difficulties inherent in the creation of a high quality corpus. It also shows how difficult it is to establish a clear and simple "judicial precedents-set" out of the cases identified in the database of the IEEE.

For the second and third categories, an obvious question arises: how to detect the duplicated passages?

Detecting duplicated passages: the sliding window

When an abnormal proximity is detected by the method described above, it is proposed to proceed as follows. Each text is divided into small windows of equal lengths which are compared pair by pair (Fig. 10). This method has already been discussed in (Labbé 2007). A near method is presented in Brixtel & Al (2009). It differs from the traditional method, using alignment by n-grams (e.g. Horton & Al 2010), which is accurate – even on short passages - but time consuming when used on large corpora.

Figure10. The sliding window method (fragment of B is compared to all fragments of the same length, cut along the same pace in A).



Initially, the procedure is the same as presented in the first section - calculating a mean and a confidence interval, then detecting of abnormal closeness - but it is applied to all fragments of

[21] Chenxia Sun, Xiaoyang He, Chao Wang. The Web-based B2B Environment with Web Services. *Proceedings of the 2009 International Conference on Electronic Computer Technology*, February 2009, p. 103-107.

[22] Xinyu Zhang, Wei Tang, Cheng Sun. The Web-based B2B Environment with Web Services. *Proceedings of the 2009 Sixth International Conference on Information Technology: New Generations*, June 2009, p. 1623-1624.

equal length that can be cut within the two texts.

First, consider the example with a window of 250 words moving through the text at a pace of 125 words (*i.e.* every word of the two texts occurs twice in the various calculations). The mean distance between the windows of 250 words cut between texts by different authors in the corpus O is: 0.687, $\sigma = 0.040$, with the lower limit of the confidence interval ($\alpha = 1\%$): 0.562.

It can be concluded, with less than 1% risk of error, that a distance of less than 0.56 – between two windows of 250 tokens drawn from two different texts by different authors - indicates excerpts that need to be examined closely. Table 11 below provides a summary of these results for the three texts quoted in the caveat of the IEEE, reproduced at the beginning of this section (to compress the table, contiguous windows were merged when they were significant).

Table 11. Detection - in a single text – of copied portions from several different originals, by way of the sliding window.

Slice	Duplicate (D0002)	Original papers	Original portions	smaller distance
1	0 - 250	O0011	0 - 750	0.38
2	250 - 500	O0011	500 - 1250	0.42
3	500 - 750	O0011	1000 - 1250	0.52
4	750 - 1000	O0003	6750 - 7250	0.50
5	1000 - 1500	O0003	7250 - 7750	0.25
6	1500 - 1600	O0011	2000 - 2250	0.54

The slice number 5 is the closest to the one of the two duplicate originals. Both texts can be read in parallel in the Appendix. Naturally, in this case, the duplication is rough but it is interesting to note that the combination of the sliding window with the intertextual distance and the threshold method enables one to automatically pinpoint the relevant passages from the originals and the duplication and to put them in parallel, which can greatly facilitate the work of experts to whom these cases would be submitted.

Validation and calibration of the optimal parameters

As above, two questions need to be asked. Firstly, how can one validate this method? Secondly, what are the optimal dimensions for the lowest possible risk of false positives, while ensuring the highest possible recognition rate without burdening the operator with too many texts?

When using the whole corpus, the size of the window, the pace and the similarity threshold were changed and the results were summarized. As before, the selected texts were longer than 1000 words and for each couple to be studied, the ratio of the two lengths was less than 1:7 and the intertextual distance was less than 0.49.

Firstly it would appear that the smaller the window is – with the same similarity threshold - the greater the risk is of increasing the number of "false positives": some suspicious samples are not duplicates but concern, for example, portions of texts on identical technical aspects or similar previous publications, *etc*. With less than a 250-word window, this drawback becomes significant. The window length which generates the least number of errors is 500 words. There is not an ideal pace (it depends on the grain size desired).

Incidentally, this point reminds us that it seems difficult - by statistical methods - to find the author of a few lines of a letter or a few verses of a poem. This is why the sliding window technique cannot be used to detect duplication but only to locate relevant passages, when this duplication has been detected in the complete texts.

The size of the pace has an effect in case of a "Harlequin fabric" duplication involving extracts of a short length. In this case, too large a pace might omit some duplicated passages when they overlap too much with non-duplicated parts. In return, decreasing the pace slows the processing and makes the analysis more difficult.

The similarity threshold is the last important parameter. Table 12 shows the results of experimentation on the 267 duplication-original couples of texts separated by an intertextual distance of less than 0.49. The first two columns show the results when choosing a very strict threshold (0.2 or 80% of the text in common). The last two columns present the results when applying the highest threshold (0.50).

Table 12. Proportion (P) of similar slices detected in an original / duplication pair according to their similarity threshold (window of 500 words and step of 50 words).

	Threshold 0.2		Threshold 0.5	
Proportion of similar slices	Number of couples	Mean distance	Number of couples	Mean distance
All slices	11	0.0794	125	0.2383
1 > P > 0,75	13	0.0907	38	0.3190
0.75 > P > 0,50	28	0.1864	48	0.3552
0,50 > P > 0,25	29	0.2421	35	0.3937
0,25 > P > 0	69	0.3109	19	0.4327
0	58	0.3841	1	0.4425

Finally, the choice of the threshold and of the pace depends on the type of duplication and on the strategy chosen for its detection:

A low threshold allows one to directly locate the passages which are fully or almost fully duplicated. This strategy is needed in cases of low intertextual distance between an original and a supposed duplication, or when several originals are detected. In return, this threshold is clearly inadequate when the distance is quite high as shown, in the last line of Table 12, by the 58 cases for which no results are returned, while in reality they are actual duplications.

On the contrary, a higher threshold of similarity allows one to find passages containing a significant amount of duplication. These passages can be dispersed in a text that is only partially a copy of the original. Conversely, the choice is counterproductive when the distance is relatively small: in this case, all (or most) of the text is marked as a duplicate...

This technique allows the pinpointing of significant examples - such as the one presented in Appendix and to calibrate the three parameters correctly. This could be the first step towards the creation of a duplication "precedents-set". However, this set will always be incomplete because the IEEE does not publish details of requests which it rejects. Such information would be indispensable to define the acceptable "levels of intertextuality" in front of the unacceptable ones.

4. Conclusions

It should be remembered that several factors may explain few occasional difficulties when identifying the author(s) of a scientific text: the impersonal nature of works, the differences between collective authors and, above all, the relatively high level of intertextuality tolerated between papers on the same subject. One might also wonder if this is even a trait of the development of science. When a research field comes to maturity, the terminology, the symbolism, and the experiments are gradually standardized, so that the papers on these subjects will inevitably share an ever increasing dose of intertextuality. The field of computer science gives the opportunity to observe this process, particularly with the many "survey papers" which greatly contribute to this convergence. All these factors will increase the acceptance rate of intertextuality and make it even more difficult to identify the author, at least in few cases.

These limitations accepted, the experiments presented in this paper suggest that the combination of intertextual distance and the sliding window with various classification techniques provides a suitable tool to detect cases of duplication in the scientific literature.

This problem should be seriously considered. Establishing the origin of ideas, concepts, algorithms and data is not only a moral issue but, over all, a condition for the advancement of knowledge. It is under these conditions that researchers agree to communicate the results of their research. The hidden intertextuality provokes mistrust among scientists, hinders exchanges and makes research more difficult (e.g. Arnold 2010).

It was not possible to present a detailed comparison with the existing commercial tools usually used for “plagiarism” detection such as *Crosscheck* or *Turnitin* (both powered by the American company iParadigms). Future work will address this comparison.

Efficient software which is able to detect this hidden intertextuality would be very helpful. One of the difficulties encountered in the development of these tools is the lack of an extensive corpus of actual cases on which to test them. The IEEE bibliographic database clearly meets this need by providing several hundred usable cases. Naturally, the aim is not to single out some individuals, hence the need to stick to the word "duplication" and not to use words like "plagiarism", "plagiarist" or "fraud" (these notions convey moral or legal connotations that are far beyond the statistical approach).

In the future, these "data mining" tools could certainly be useful for conference organizers, journal editors, managers of bibliographic databases, commissions of experts, to counter those bad practices, not to mention two related problems: the same author(s) duplicating a paper with few cosmetic modifications and the worsening of student plagiarism (Elis 2012). Of course, such software can only help decisions which still ultimately depend on careful reading by experts in the field. This precaution is particularly necessary - as this paper has shown – because the profile of a group of authors is often variable, but also because certain practices can generate a significant level of intertextuality, despite being considered normal, at least at the present time.

Of course, some forms of hidden intertextuality remain more difficult to detect. This is particularly the case of original documents duplicated in another language, or when the concealed "borrowing" is not that of the text but of data, symbolism or figures.

Finally, the experiments presented in this paper demonstrate that the identification of the authors of a scientific text is possible in the same way as it is for literature, journalism, *etc*.

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All our papers are freely available online (http://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/)

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Appendix 1.

The corpus: original papers (O) and duplicated ones (D) noticed by the IEEE which are used in our experiments (spring 2012)

	Duplications		Originals
D0001	T. J. Hammons. Status of International Interconnections and Electricity Deregulation in Africa. *Proceedings of the 10th International Workshop on Web and Databases*. June 15 2007, Beijing, China.	O0004	P Naidoo, L. Musaba, W Balet & A Chikova. Toward Developing a Competitive Market for Regional Electricity Cross Border Trading: the Case of the Southern African Power Pool. *IEEE 2004 General Meeting*. Denver, USA, June 2004
		O0005	A. Majeed, H A Karim, N.H Al Maskati, S. Sud. Status of Gulf Co-Operation Council (GCC) Electricity Grid System Interconnection. *Proceedings of the 2004 IEEE Power Engineering Society General Meeting*.
		O0006	Ahmed Zobaa. Status of International Interconnections. *Proceedings of the 2004 IEEE Power Engineering Society General Meeting.*
		O0007	Raymond Johnson. Impact of Privatization and Deregulation on Infrastructure Development in Africa. *Proceedings of the 2004 IEEE Power Engineering Society General Meeting*.
D0002	Anup Bhatkar & J.L. Rana. Estimating neutral divergence amongst Mammals for Comparative Genomics with Mammalian Scope. *Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Information Technology*.	O0003	Gregory M. Cooper, Eric A. Stone, George Asimenos, NISC Comparative Sequencing Program, Eric D. Green, Serafim Batzoglou & Arend Sidow, Distribution and intensity of constraint in mammalian genomic sequence. *Genome Research*. Jul 2005, 15, pp 901– 913
		O0011	Gregory M. Cooper, Michael Brudno, NISC Comparative Sequencing Program, Eric D. Green, Serafim Batzoglou & Arend Sidow, "Quantitative Estimates of Sequence Divergence for Comparative Analyses of Mammalian Genomes. *Genome Research*. May 2003; 13, pp 813– 820.
D0003	Krzysztof Szafranski. Analysis of Hemodynamics of Intercranial Saccular Aneurysms. *Proceedings of the 29th Annual International Conference of the IEEE EMBS. 23 August 2007, pp 2859-2862.*	O0012	Yiemeng Hoi, Hui Meng, Scott H. Woodward, Bernard R. Bendok, Ricardo A. Hanel, Lee R. Guterman & L. Nelson Hopkins.Effects of Arterial Geometry on Aneurysm Growth: Three-dimensional Computational Fluid Dynamics Study. *Journal of Neurosurgery*. October 2004, pp 676-681.

D0004	David I. Eromon. High Temperature Superconducting (HTS) Generator Field Coil with Influence of Thermal AC Losses. *Proceedings of the 33rd Annual Conference of the IEEE Industrial Electronics Society*. Nov. 2007, pp. 1280-1286	O0002	NMagnusson & M Runde.The influence of thermal gradients on AC losses in high-temperature superconducting coils. *Supercond. Sci. Technol*. 15 (2002) 1113–1118.
D0005	Rahul Choudhari, Ajay Choudhari, R. D. Choudhari. Increasing Search Engine Efficiency using Cooperative Web. *Proceedings of the 2008 International Conference on Computer Science and Software Engineering*. Wuhan, China, December 12, 2008	O0001	Jie Xu Qinglan Li Huiming Qu Alexandros Labrinidis. Towards a Content-Provider-Friendly Web Page Crawler. *Proceedings of the 10th International Workshop on Web and Databases*. June 15, 2007, Beijing, China.
D0006	Hong Fei, Liu Rui, Bai Yu. Performance Evaluation of the Burstiness Impact with a Realistic IP Structure Model. *Proceedings of the 2nd IEEE International Conference on Computer Science and Information Technology*. Beijing, China, August 2009.	O0009	Chloé Rolland, Julien Ridoux, Bruno Baynat & Vincent Borrel. Using LiTGen, a realistic IP traffic model, to evaluate the impact of burstiness on performance. *SIMUTools 2008*. March 03-07, 2008, Marseille, France.
D0007	Umesh Sehgal, Kuljeet Kaur, Pawan Kumar. The Anatomy of a Large-Scale Hyper Textual Web Search Engine. *Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Computer and Electrical Engineering*. December 2009, pp. 491-495.	O0010	Sergey Brin, Lawrence Page. The anatomy of a large-scale hypertextual Web search engine. *Computer Networks and ISDN Systems*. 30 (1998), p 107-117.
D0008	Baolin Sun & Hua Chen. An Intrusion Detection System for AODV. *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference of Engineering of Complex Computer Systems*. 2005.	O0024	Yang Tseng, Poornima Balasubramanyam, Calvin Ko, Rattapon Limprasittiporn, Jeff Rowe & Karl Levitt. A Specification-based Intrusion Detection System for AODVC. *Proceedings of the 2003 ACM Workshop on Security of Ad Hoc and Sensor Networks*. Fairfax, VA USA, 31October 2003.
D0009	HuaiKou Miao & JunFeng Wu. Applying Formal Methods to Compositionality Description of Web Service. *Second International Conference on Internet and Web Applications and Services ICIW 2007*.	O0016 O0014	M. Solanki, A. Cau & H. Zedan. Introducing Compositionality in Web Service Descriptions. *Proceedings of the 10th IEEE International Workshop on Future Trends of Distributed Computing Systems*. 2004, pp 14-20. M. Solanki, A. Cau & H. Zedan. Augmenting Semantic Web Service Description with Compositional Specifications. *Proceedings of the International World Wide Web Conference*. May 2004, pp. 544-552.
D0010	M. Aruna, M.P. Suguna Devi & M. Deepa. Measuring the Quality of Software Modularization using Coupling-Based Structural Metrics for an OOS System. *First International Conference on Emerging Trends in Engineering and Technology*.	O0020 O0019	Santonu Sarkar, Girish Maskeri Rama & Avinash C. Kak. API-Based and Information-Theoretic Metrics for Measuring the Quality of Software Modularization. *IEEE Transactions on Software Engineering*. Vol. 33, n° 1, January 2007. Santonu Sarkar, Avinash C. Kak & N. S. Nagaraja. Metrics for Analyzing Module Interactions in Large Software Systems.

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Appendix 2

A detection of duplicated texts by the way of the sliding window

Duplication	**Original**
(D0195 from 1500th to 1750th word) Figure 2. Example of training vectors for edge detection In order to reduce the execution time, we adopt a newway to form the training vectors. Thus we prefer to form the training vectors directly rather than use an image to extract the training vectors. One example of these vectors used to train the SVM is shown in Figure.2. The only training used is horizontal, vertical and no edge and we expect the other edges will be generalized. A value that must be set in the training process is the difference between dark and bright zones, since this parameter controls the sensitivity of the edge detector. A little difference makes the detector more sensible and a greater one reduces this sensitivity. In the examples of Figure.2 the difference is fixed to 25 in a scale between 0 and 255. When we train the SVM to detect the horizontal edges, the vectors like the one in Figur.2-a are marked with a +1 label and the 2-b and 2-c are marked with -1. The process is similar with vertical detection but changing 2-b with 2-a. Obviously, the training vectors are not only those in Figure.2 but several of them obtained changing the gray values in dark and bright zones while maintaining the difference.	(O0222 from 1125th to 1375th word) when it is applied to the images. 3.1 Training The main difference between the new approach and the one presented in [3] is the way elected to obtain the training vectors. Since our goal is to reduce the execution time, one important idea is to reduce the number on support vectors while maintaining the performance. Then, instead of the use of an image and extract the training vectors from it we prefer to form directly the training vectors. One example of these vectors used to train the SVM is shown in Fig. 1. The only training used is horizontal, vertical and no edge and we expect that the other edges will be generalized. A value that must be set in the training process is the difference between dark and bright zones, since this parameter controls the sensitivity of the edge detector. A little difference makes the detector more sensible and a greater one reduces this sensitivity. In the examples of Fig. 1 the difference is fixed to 25 in a scale between 0 and 255. When we train the SVM to detect the horizontal edges, the vectors like the one in Fig. 1-a are marked with a +1 label and the 1-b and 1-c are marked with -1. The process is similar with vertical detection but changing 1-b with 1-a. Obviously, the training vectors are not only those in Fig. 1 but several of them obtained

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